

STUDENT STUDY PROJECT

ON

“Synergy of water and reservoir management: A Comprehensive study”
of Dr. Burgula Ramakrishna Rao Govt. degree,
Jadcherla Town of Mahabubnagar district, Telangana India”


Department of Zoology

Dr. B.R.R. Government College Jadcherla
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CERTIFICATE

This is certify that the projectworkentitled“Synergy of water and Reservoir Management : A Comprehensive study of “Dr. BURGULA RAMA KRISHNA RAO GOVT DEGREE COLLEGE, Jadcherla” is a bonafied work done by P.Adithyavarma , M. Raghavender, S. Santhosh , M. Venkatesh , P. Raju (BZCs) , the students of BSC. (BZC) E/M, VI semester students under my supervision in Zoology at the Department of Zoology “ DR. BRR GOVT COLLEGE JADCHERLA” during 2022- 23 and the work as not be submiotted in any another college or university either part or full for the award of my degree.

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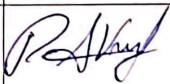
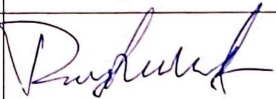

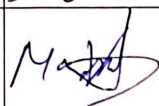
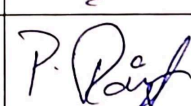
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DECLARATION

We P. Adithya Varma , S. Santhosh , M. Raghavender, M . Venkatesh, P. Raju here by declare that these project report entitled:Synergy of Water and Reservoir Maintainance: A Comprehensive Study. Jadcherla ,Mahabubnagar (Dist), Telangana State is a genuine

Record of project work done by us by the guidance of "Smt K. Neeraja" Assistant professor Department of Zoology of DR. BURUGULA RAMA KRISHNA RAO Jadcherla and as not be submitted to any universities or institution of the award of any degree or diploma

Further declare that the advancement of knowledge in science .

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ABSTRACT

This abstract presents a simplified overview of the project on Reservoir Water Maintenance and Treatment, focusing on the goal ensuring a safe and sustainable water supply. The project aims to assess the condition of the reservoir, identify potential source of contamination, implement maintenance measures and treat the water to remove contaminants. By emphasizing the importance of safe water for public health, the project promotes responsible water usage and highlights the need for collaborative efforts to maintain and treat reservoir water effectively.

1.INTRODUCTION

Bacteriological water testing is a method of collecting water samples and analysing those samples to estimate the numbers of bacteria present.

Natural water supplies such as rivers, lakes, and streams contain sufficient nutrients to support the growth of various organisms. Microorganisms enter the water supply in several different ways. In congested centres water supplies get polluted by domestic and industrial waste. As a potential carrier of pathogenic microorganisms, water can endanger health and life. From the standpoint of transmitting human disease, polluting water with soil, rubbish, industrial wastes, and even animal manure is comparatively harmless. These sources rarely contain pathogens capable of producing human diseases when swallowed with drinking water. Sewage containing human excreta, however, is the most dangerous material that pollutes water. People with communicable diseases of many kinds eliminate the causative organisms in their excreta.

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Other organisms, naturally present in the environment and not regarded as pathogens, may also cause opportunist disease. Ideally, drinking water should not contain any microorganisms known to be pathogenic. It should be free from bacteria indicative of pollution with excreta. The majority of the population in developing countries is not adequately supplied with potable water, and thus obliged to use unsafe water for domestic and drinking purposes.

Hence, it is essential to check the quality of the available drinking water from various sources.

In view of this present study was designed to analyse the microbiological quality of the available drinking water from various sources like food stalls, tea stalls, supply water, packaged water to facilitate the examination of level of contamination and finally hence the risk associated with their consumption.

Since, most of earlier undertaken studies in India have dealt with physical and chemical parameters of drinking water quality. Hence the study has been designed to examine the microbiological quality of available drinking water.

Source of Domestic Water

Jurala Project

The Jurala Project is a multipurpose irrigation project located on the River Krishna in Telangana, India. The water from Jurala Project is primarily used for irrigation, drinking water supply, and industrial purposes.

To bring water from Jurala Project to Jadcherla for the Mission Bhagiratha Project, a series of canals and pipelines have been constructed. The water is first released from the Jurala Dam and flows through the Jurala Canal, which is a gravity canal that carries water to various villages and towns along the way.

From there, the water is diverted into a network of pipelines that carry it to Jadcherla. These pipelines are laid underground to prevent evaporation and ensure that the water reaches its destination efficiently.

The water is then stored in reservoirs and tanks in Jadcherla, where it undergoes treatment before it is supplied to households and industries through a distribution network.

Overall, the Jurala Project plays a crucial role in providing water for the Mission Bhagiratha Project, which aims to provide safe drinking water to every household in Telangana.

Water Treatment Plants

Details of water treatment plant Nagasala, Jadcherla. The Nagasala water treatment plant in Jadcherla, Telangana is a major source of drinking water for the surrounding communities. Here are some details about the plant:

Capacity: The plant has a capacity of 77 million litres per day.

Location: The water treatment plant is located in Nagasala village, near Jadcherla in the Mahabubnagar district of Telangana, India.

Source of water: The plant treats water from the Kagna River, which is a tributary of the Krishna River.



Figure 1: Water treatment plant, Nagasala

Treatment process: The plant uses a conventional treatment process that includes coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation, and filtration to remove impurities from the water. Chlorine is also added to disinfect the water before it is distributed to consumers.

Ownership: The Nagasala water treatment plant is owned and operated by the Telangana State Drinking Water Supply Corporation (TSDWSC).



Figure 3. Nagasala Water treatment plant

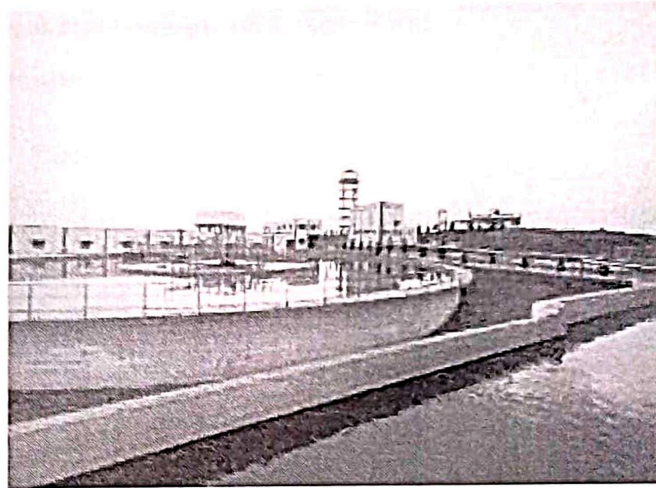


Figure 2. External view of water treatment plant

Steps for Purification on Large Scale

Step 1: Collection

The raw water which is supplied to the water treatment plant comes from Jurala Project built on Krishna River

Step 2: Water Aeration

Water aeration is the process of increasing or maintaining the oxygen saturation of water in both natural and artificial environments. Aeration techniques are commonly used in pond, lake, and reservoir management to address low oxygen levels or algal blooms.



Figure 4. Water Aerator

Step3:Coagulation

- Raw water is treated with chemical coagulant Alum (Aluminium Sulphate) was in the range of 5-40 mg/L of water. The dose of Alum where is depending upon turbidity, colour, temperature and pH of the water.
 - Here we saw the raw water coming from Krishna River which was then mixed with Alum and Chlorine

Step4:FlashMixing

- Treated water is subjected to violent agitation in a mixing chamber for few minutes
- This allows quick and rapid dissemination of Alum throughout the bulk of the water.

Step5:Flocculation

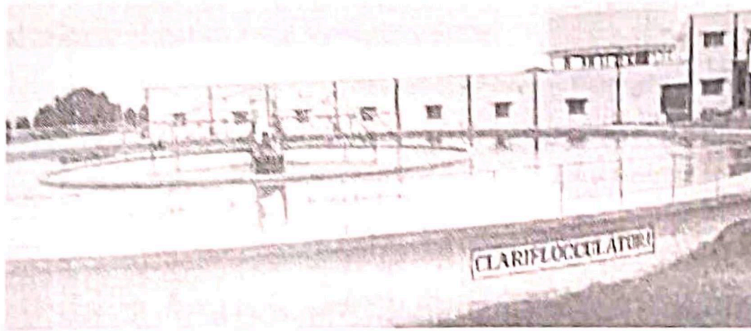


Figure 5 Clariflocculator-flocculation chamber

- This phase involves a slow and gentle stirring of the treated water in a flocculation chamber.
- The mechanized type of rotor is most commonly used. It consists of a number of paddles which rotate at 2-4 rpm.
 - This slow and gentle stirring causes the formation of aluminium hydroxide.
 - The thicker the precipitate is, the higher is the settling velocity.
 - The superficial layer of water is now removed along with the flocculent material.

Step6:Sedimentation

- The coagulated water is now led into sedimentation tank where it is detained for 2-6 hrs when the flocculent precipitate together with impurities and bacteria settle down in the tank.

- At least 95% of the flocculation precipitate needs to be removed from the water before it is admitted to the rapid filters.
- The sludge or precipitate is removed from the bottom of the tank without disturbing the operation of the tank.

Step 7: Filtration

- Each filter unit has 4 sand beds – filtersand, coarse sand, fine gravel.
The thickness of sand bed is 1 m
 - The effective size of sand particle is 0.4 – 0.7mm
 - Below the sand bed, a layer of graded gravel of 30–40mm
- The depth of the water on the top of the sand bed is 5–6 feet
- The underdrains at the bottom of the filter bed collect the filter water. The rate of filtration is 5–25 cum/sqm/hr.
 - The alum floc forms a slimy layer which absorbs bacteria from the water and effects purification of water. This alum floc is not removed by sedimentation and held back on the same bed.
 - Oxidation of ammonia also takes place during the passage of water through filters.

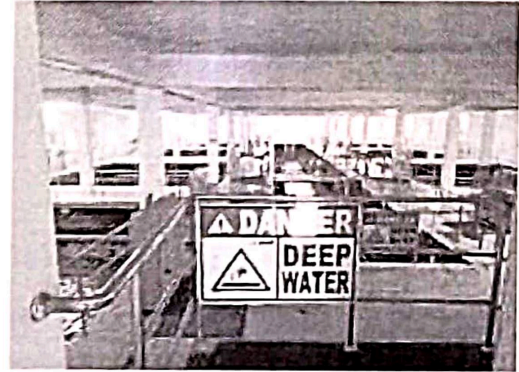


Figure 6 Water Filtration Beds

Step 8: Backwashing

- As filter proceeds, the suspended impurities and bacteria clog the filters.
 - The filter soon becomes dirty and begins to lose their efficiency
 - It dislodges the impurities and cleans up the sand bed.
- Washing is stopped when clear sand is visible and the wash water is sufficiently clean
 - It takes about 15 mins

Step 9: Disinfection

- This is the last step before the storage and distribution of this water.
 - The process used in Chlorination.
- The chlorine gas is used for effective disinfection

Principles of Chlorination:

- 1 Water should be free from turbidity.
- 2 Chlorine demand should be estimated
- 3 Contact period
- 4 Minimum recommended concentration of free chlorine is mg/l for 1 hour
- 5 The Chlorine demand of water is the difference between the amount of chlorine remaining at the end of treatment (after 1 hr). The residual chlorine concentration is 0.5 mg/L for 1 hr

Action of chlorine

- When Chlorine is added to the water there is a formation of hydrochloric acid and hypochlorous acid. The disinfecting action of chlorine is due to hypochlorous acid.

Step 10: Reservoir

- We have visited the reservoir where the purified water was stored
- From there it was supplied to approximately 483 nearby villages.

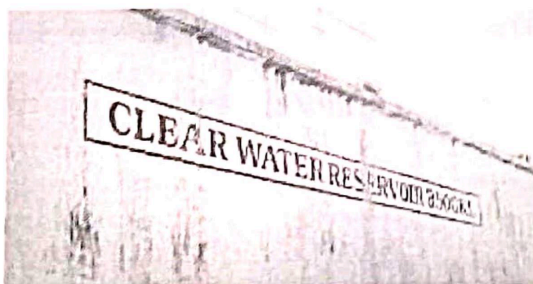


Figure 8 Clear water reservoir



Figure 9 Clear water pump house

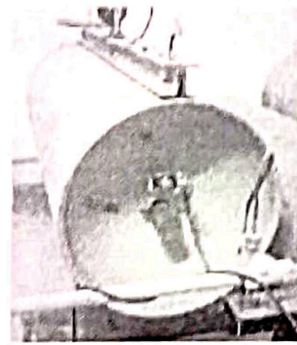


Figure 7. Chlorine gas storage cylinder

ABSTRACT

The ground water problem is explained by drinking water, domestic water, industrial water. Water problems are experienced in Jadcherla due to management and space problem. Jurala project Krishna river water and srisailam water are source of water in jadcherla. It is a policy that needs to extract ground water is to inform district commissioner ten days in advance. District Commissioner has no powers to refuse or scrutinize applications..

Extraction of ground water in notified areas was an offence under previous policy. The main aim and objectives of this work is to come across the issue of ground water quality in Jadcherla. To examine the affordability of water to get connected in relation to space, the customers' ability to pay for water supplies, accessibility of the lines to customers to get connected, availability of water even after connection, and the seasonal effect on water availability. Human life is highly unhygienic as well as suffers serious health problem due to water quality. Ground water in Jadcherla has relation with space, economy, policy and management. These spaces are not officially allowed for water supply connection and boreholes.

People are sustaining life with poor quality of groundwater.

1. OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

1. Delineation of ground water potential zone with the help of RS and GIS technique.
2. To find out the suitable zone of ground water quality for urban development and planning.

2. 2.Parameters selected for collected water samples

The following basic parameters included in this study:

2. 2.1. Physical parameters

The physical parameters tested include temperature, conductivity, color, odour and turbidity. The temperature and the conductivity are tested using suitable instrument Multiparameter Tester 35 Series of Eutech make. The colour and odour are determined by visual observations of the collected water samples.

2. 2.2. Chemical parameters

The chemical parameters included in this study are based on the determination of the pH, Salinity, Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) and the detection of harmful chemicals iron and fluoride. The pH, Salinity and TDS are measured using Multi-parameter Tester 35 Series of Eutech make after calibrating the instrument with suitable standard buffers before testing individual parameters following manufacturer's instructions. The iron and fluoride are estimated using AQUA Check Iron Test Kit and Fluoride Test Kit of HI Media Laboratories respectively according to the instructions supplied with the kits.

2. 2.3. Bacteriological parameters

For the detection of presence or absence of coliform bacteria in collected sample water commercially available PAColiform Kit MS1186 of HI Media Laboratories is used in this study. The procedures followed according to instructions provided along with the kit. Briefly the entire quantity of dehydrated medium PABroth for a single test is dissolved by swirling in 100 ml of sample.

After dissolution the mixture is incubated in 35°C for 48 hrs. The colour change of the medium after incubation signifies the presence or absence of coliforms. The rapid detection of pathogenic bacterial strains simultaneously in water samples including Salmonella species, E.coli, Citrobacter species and Vibrio species the HI Water Test Kit K015 of HI Media Laboratories is suitably used following the instructions supplied with the kit. Supplied within the kit two dehydrated media; 'Medium A' for the simultaneous detection of Salmonella, E.coli, Citrobacter species in sample water and 'Medium B' for the detection of Vibrio species (V.cholera V.parahaemolyticus, other Vibrio's)

3. RESULTS

The sample water collected from various parts of Kolkata are analysed based on the physical, chemical and microbiological parameters.

3. 1. Analyses of the physical parameters

3. 1. 1. Colour

Colour in surface water and ground waters results primarily from the presence of natural organic matter, particularly aquatic humic matter (APHA et al., 2012). In this study almost all the sample water collected from municipal tap and household sources are colorless except those collected from tube wells or ponds (Table 1). The appearance of slight turbidity on visual inspection in the ground water samples gave a deviation from the true colorless state of the other samples. The turbidity in water samples is caused due to suspended and colloid matters such as clay, silts, finely divided organic and inorganic matter, plankton and other microscopic organisms (McCoy and Olson, 1986; APHA et al., 2012).

Odour is recognized as a quality factor affecting acceptability of drinking water for human use (U.S. EPA, 1973). Since some odorous materials are detectable when present in only a few nanograms per litre it is usually impractical and sometimes impossible to isolate and identify the odour-producing chemicals. The human nose is the practical odour-testing device used in this method (Mallevalle and Suffet, 1987). All the samples analysed were odourless which are collected from tap or household containers. The sample from the tube wells and ponds gave no objectionable odour.

3.1.3. Temperature

The temperature of the water samples varied according to time of collection. The water collected from household sources showed minor variations in temperature while the water collected from open water-bodies varies with location although the range of variation is not very high.

3.1.4. Conductivity

The electrical conductivity is a measure of the ability of an aqueous solution to carry an electrical current. This ability depends on the presence of ions; on their total concentration, mobility and valence. In SI (International System of Units) conductivity is reported as millisiemens per meter (mS/m) or $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ where $1 \text{ mS}/\text{m} = 10 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (APHA et al., 2012). The conductivity of the potable water samples varied in different areas of Kolkata and it ranged within $210 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm} - 945 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (Table 1). According to European Economic Community Standards for physiochemical parameters in relation to the natural water structure, guide level for conductivity is $400 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (AWWA, 1990).

3. 2. Analyses of the chemical parameters

3.2.1. pH

The pH value of tested water samples refers to the intensity of the acidic or alkaline condition of a solution (Murhekar, 2011). Changes in pH values can directly affect metabolic activity of living organisms. The pH values of water also determine the chemistry and availability of nutrients. Organisms have a limited range of pH tolerance. Natural level of alkalinity refers to the condition when pH value exceeds 7 tend not to be as important as level of acidity since it poses a constraint on the organismal function and activities (Cain et al., 2014). The pH interferes with the chemical reactions of water and hence considered a valued factor for representing water quality (Fakayode, 2005). For sustenance of aquatic biota, pH must be within the range of 6.5 to 8.2 (Wang, 2002). The pH value obtained when the different sample waters from various areas and sources in Kolkata are analysed ranged from 7.85-8.68 (Table 2) showing an alkaline nature.

3. 2.2. Salinity

Salinity is conceived as a measure of the mass of dissolved salts in a given mass of aquatic solution. Freshwater has very little salt, usually less than 0.5 ppt (parts per thousand). Water with salinity of 0.5-17 ppt is known as brackish water. Seawater on an average shows a salinity of 30-40 ppt (APHA et al., 2012). The sample water investigated in this study is mainly freshwater and ground water. The salinity levels in the collected water samples in Kolkata ranged from 0.121-0.511 ppt.

3. 2. 3. Total Dissolved Solids (TDS)

TDS values are the result of the higher ionic deposition (Singh, 2010). Lower values of the TDS denoted the less ionic concentration, which may be the result of ample rainfall and surface (Bhatt

et al., 1999). Waters with high TDS generally are of inferior palatability and may induce an unfavorable physiological reaction in transient consumers. The desirable limit for TDS in drinking water is 500 mg/l (APHA et al., 2012). The TDS determined in this study in selected locations and sources of potable water varied within a range from 154 mg/l to 666 mg/l

3.2.4. Iron

Iron usually occurs in all natural waters in both oxidised (Ferric) as well as reduced (Ferrous) forms. Since the ground water is often anoxic any soluble iron is mostly present in the

ferrous state. According to U.S. EPA the standard concentrations of iron in drinking water are normally less than 0.3 mg/l (APHA et al., 2012) but it varies and can have a higher concentration where cast iron, steel or galvanised iron pipes are used for water distribution (WHO, 2006). Presence of iron in water promotes growth of undesirable iron bacteria that result in deposition of slimy coating in the piping (WHO, 2006; AWWA, 1990; Rannamae and Veldre, 1998). Elevated iron levels in water can impart objectionable taste and colours (APHA, et al., 2012). The estimated iron concentration in this study in certain locations of Kolkata ranged from

0.1 mg/l to 0.5 mg/l (Table 2).

3.2.5. Fluoride

Fluoride is widely distributed in the lithosphere and hydrosphere. Because of the dissolving power of water and movement of water in hydrological cycle fluoride is found in all

waters (AWWA, 1990). According to Wyatt et al., (Wyatt et al., 1997) there is a link between arsenic (As) and fluoride (F) in drinking water. Two forms of chronic effects are recognised generally as being caused by excess intake of fluoride over long periods of time. These are mottling of tooth enamel dental fluorosis and skeletal fluorosis (Srikanth et al., 2002; Malde et al., 1997; Mascarenhas, 2000; Shivshankar et al., 2000). The concentration of fluoride in water follows a complex effect on human health. A concentration of fluoride less than 0.5

mg/l is responsible for dental caries above 0.9 mg/l is responsible for the appearance of the disease fluorosis. Thus the WHO guideline value for fluoride concentration is 0.5-0.9 mg/l (WHO, 2006).

The concentration of fluoride

levels detected in water samples in different zones of Kolkata ranged from 0.1 mg/l to 0.4 mg/l

3.3. Analysis of the bacteriological parameters

The contamination of drinking water sources with microbial pathogens is the leading cause of more than three million deaths every year from water-related disease and 43% of water-related deaths are due to diarrhoea (WHO, 2008). The majority of the infectious diseases are caused by bacteria, fungi, viruses and parasites associated with human excreta which contaminate water supplies (Tambekar and Hirulkar, 2007). The coliform bacteria were regarded as a group belonging to the genera *Escherichia*, *Citrobacter*, *Klebsiella* and *Enterobacter*, but other genera including *Serratia* and *Hafnia*.

The total coliform group includes both faecal and environmental species and they occur in both sewage and natural waters. Some of the bacteria belonging to the total coliform are excreted in human faeces but many coliforms are heterotrophic and multiply in water and soil.

The indicator organism of choice for faecal pollution is *E. coli*. Thermotolerant coliforms

enzyme β -galactosidase. Methods including MPN (Most Probable Number) and P/A tests (Presence/Absence) are generally employed for the coliform detection in drinking water (Ashbolt et al., 2001; Grabow, 1996; Sueiro et al., 2001; WHO, 2006). The PA Coliform Kit is used in this study to detect harmful coliform bacteria in potable water samples in certain locations of Kolkata.

Presence of coliform bacteria detected in samples collected from Dum Dum, Goabagan, Sakuntalapur, Kestopore and Anandapur (Table 3). The probability of major pathogenic bacterial species which are included in the presence of coliform in the sample tested includes

E. aerogenes, *E. coli*, *E. faecalis*, *K. pneumoniae*, *S. typhimurium* (Greenberg et al., 1985). For rapid and simultaneous detection of *Salmonella* species, *E. coli*, *Citrobacter* species and *Vibrio* species the HiWater Test Kit is used. The Medium A supplied with HiWater Test kit utilizes the modified form of Manja et al. (Manja et al., 1982) protocol where the differentiation of bacterial species belonging to *Salmonella*, *Citrobacter* was based on H₂S production and the detection of *E. coli* on the basis of colour change of the medium.

The chemical composition of the medium A includes Peptone as source of Nitrogen, Ferric Ammonium Citrate and Sodium thiosulphate. The production of H₂S gas is identified when the sample water containing enteric bacterial species belonging to group of *Salmonella* or *Citrobacter* reduces Sodium thiosulphate. The other reagents present in the medium like Dipotassium hydrogen phosphate acts as a buffer and Sodium lauryl sulphate inhibits the growth of associated microflora. Bromocresol purple acts as an indicator for pH change as the original reddish-purple colour of the medium shifts to yellow signifying the presence of *E. coli* bacterial species. The different sample water tested in this study showed the presence of *E. coli*, *Salmonella* species and *Citrobacter* species in certain locations of Kolkata. Similarly the Medium B supplied in the same kit is the Vibrio broth for the identification of the *V. cholerae*, *V. parahemolyticus* and other *Vibrio* species. Briefly the medium contains Peptone, Sodium citrate, Bile salt, Sucrose, Sodium thiosulphate, Sodium chloride and Indicator mix. Sucrose acts as fermentable carbohydrate and thiosulphate is the sulphur source. The alkaline pH helps in the isolation of the *V. cholerae*. Incubating the Medium B mixing with different sample water in this study in Kolkata detected *V. cholerae* as well as *V. parahemolyticus* in certain water samples collected

4. DISCUSSION

The present study was planned to monitor the potable water quality consumed or used by the people residing in congested and overcrowded areas of the city Kolkata. The water sample chosen for analysis included the drinking water as well as the water used for day-to-day human activities like cooking, mouth washing, bathing etc. The sample water collected from household containers are used for drinking and those from tube wells and municipal taps as well as open water bodies like ponds are used for drinking in some locations as well as doing other activities. The storage of drinking water is also an important aspect for quality of water assessment. The stored drinking water from household sources located in thickly populated slum areas are very prone to acquire coliform and other indicator microorganisms during storage or the conditions of the containers used for storing. Moreover the pollutant load of drinking water is significantly influenced by the pipes and fittings (Seifert

Moreover, in congested city like Kolkata drinking water and sewage pipelines usually run at close proximity creating a huge probability of mixing of waters due to leakage of old pipelines.

According to WHO guideline (WHO, 2006) presence of organic colouring matter in water stimulates the growth of many microorganisms. Discolouration of potable water may arise from the dissolution of iron or copper in distribution pipes, which can be enhanced by bacteriological processes. Microbiological action can also produce 'red water' resulting from the oxidation of iron from ferrous to ferric by iron bacteria (WHO, 2006). In this study the colour of the water samples collected from tube-well in areas such as Beliaghata, Thakurpukur and Anandapur showed a slight reddish tinge whereas those collected from ponds in areas like Sakuntalapur, Kestopore and Dumdum were turbid. Similarly the sample water collected from ponds and tube-wells from areas like Dumdum, Sakuntalapur, Beliaghata, Kestopore, Thakurpukur and Anandapur when tested an objectionable odour was detected in those samples in contrast to sample collected from either tap or household bottles in different localities. This was correlated with the fact that those samples were not colourless in contrast to other samples. Thus the presence of odour in those samples signified the presence of microbial, chemical and physical contaminants of water. The conductivity of water guide value is 400 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (AWWA, 1990). The sample tested in this study showed that water collected from ponds and tube-wells have a conductivity range much higher than the acceptable value. The water collected from tap or household bottles were within the permissible limit except the tap water collected from Burrabazar area.

The pH parameter of the tested water sample in Kolkata was in the alkaline range which is suitable for human consumption. Similarly the salinity of the water samples is in the normal range of 0.5 ppt except in Dumdum ponds sample where the value exceeds the normal limit. Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) comprise inorganic salts including Ca, Mg, K, Na, HCO_3 , Cl and SO_4 as well as small amount of organic matter that are dissolved in aqueous medium. Water gets contaminated with TDS from natural sources, sewage, urban runoff and industrial wastewater. According to WHO guideline the concentration of TDS in potable water greater than 1200 mg/l is objectionable whereas extremely low concentration renders flat, insipid taste to drinking water (WHO, 2006). The sample water tested in Kolkata the TDS concentration is within the acceptable limit of 500 mg/l (APHA, et al., 2012) in majority of the sample tested except the sample from Dumdum pond and Anandapur tube-well where beyond acceptable limit concentration have been detected in this study.

Iron is the most abundant element, by weight, in the earth's crust. Iron is the second most abundant metal in earth's crust. It is an essential element in human nutrition. The minimum daily requirement of iron ranged from about 10 to 50 mg/day (WHO 1988). Iron concentration greater than 1.0 mg/l markedly impairs the potability of the water and there is usually no noticeable taste at iron concentration below 0.3 mg/l (WHO 2003). Natural water contains variable amounts of iron and in ground water it is normally present in the ferrous or bivalent form (Fe^{++}) (Kumar and Puri 2012). The iron concentration estimated in the sample collected from different areas of Kolkata are more or less within range of 0.3 mg/l exceptions noticed in areas including Dumdum, Sakuntalapur, Beliaghata, Kestopore and Anandapur where relatively higher concentrations were noticed.

The maximum permissible limit of fluoride in drinking water is 1.5 ppm or mg/l and highest desirable limit

higher concentrations skeletal fluorosis. In contrast low concentration (approximately 0.5 ppm) provides protection against dental caries. According to previous report India is among the 23 nations around the globe where fluoride related health problems occur due to the consumption of drinking water having high concentration of fluoride from 1.0 to 400 mg/l. Moreover it was also reported that near about 20 million people are affected by fluorosis and about 40 million people are exposed to risk of endemic fluorosis (Chinoy, 1991; Kumar and Puri 2012). In the present study conducted in Kolkata in the state of West Bengal, India, the concentration of fluoride in the water sample tested is within the permissible limit.

Fecal coliform bacteria are a collection of relatively harmless microorganisms that live in large numbers in the intestines of the warm and cold blooded animals. They aid in the digestion of food.

Specific subgroups of this collection are the fecal coliform bacteria, the most common member being *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*). The presence of indicator organisms (*E. coli* or thermotolerant coliform bacteria) in water indicates recent contamination of the water source with fecal matter and hence possible presence of intestinal pathogens. According to World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines (WHO, 1996), *E. coli* or thermotolerant coliform bacteria should not be detectable in any water intended for drinking. At the time this occurred, the source water may have been contaminated by pathogens or disease-producing bacteria or viruses which can also exist in fecal material. Some water-borne pathogenic diseases include typhoid fever, viral, and bacterial gastroenteritis and hepatitis A.

The presence of fecal contamination is an indicator that a potential health risk exists for individuals exposed to this water (WHO, 1996). The presence or absence of faecal indicator bacteria is another commonly used operational monitoring parameter. There are contaminating pathogens that are resistant to disinfectants (Chlorination) than the commonly used indicator organism *E. coli* or thermotolerant coliforms including the presence of more resistant

faecal indicator bacteria (Intestinal enterococci), *Clostridium perfringens* spores or coliphages (WHO, 2012). Thus the presence or absence of *E. coli* cannot be a suitable index for the determination of other bacteria in water sample. In the present study the presence/absence of coliforms are determined in sample water collected in certain areas of Kolkata district.

The presence of coliforms were detected in samples collected from Dum Dum, Goabagan, Sakuntal park, Kestopore and Anandapur suggesting proper time to time monitoring as well as purification of the water sources are of urgent need. The presence of coliforms in water collected from ponds (Dum Dum, Kestopore, Sakuntal park) signified the contamination of faecal matters in those water bodies. The sample obtained from Goabagan which was collected from household bottles signified either there is contamination in the supply tank from where the water is kept and also the container where it is stored.

The sample collected from Anandapur tube-well might be contaminated from underground source. Analyses of the water samples for the presence/absence of bacteria namely *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, *Citrobacter* and *Vibrio* species gave positive results in certain samples investigated.

E. coli was detected in majority of the samples irrespective of whether collected from open water bodies or underground source or household source or municipal tap. In contrast *Salmonella*, *Citrobacter* species as well as *Vibrio* species occurrences were detected in few of the samples (Table 3). This signified that the sample water collected from selected overcrowded part

5. CONCLUSIONS

It is evident from this present survey that most of the sources of domestic water as well as open and ground water sources in certain congested areas of Kolkata are contaminated with bacterial pathogens capable of causing enteric diseases and do not meet the WHO guidelines for drinking water quality. The physical and chemical parameters are more-or-less within the acceptable limits of WHO guidelines with few exceptions in certain areas. All these factors might pose for possible human health hazards particularly to the residents of those zones and they are at risk of acquiring water-borne diseases as well as contaminated-water related diseases. The results of this study also suggest that tap water may be safer, but additional sampling is needed in comparison to open water sources like ponds for drinking purpose. Moreover the bacteriological contaminations are also possible from leakage of pipelines and also the place of storage and collection of potable water. Basic sewage disposal pipeline improvement may be worthwhile at the moment for preventing the faecal bacterial contaminations in drinking water. Basic treatment of the water at the community or household level by chemical disinfection using chlorine, filtration using simple household filters, and boiling should also be promoted. Thus few simple interventions may mitigate the health hazards associated with potable water and ensure access to safe drinking water which in turn would result in 200 million/year fewer diarrheal episodes and 2.1 million/year fewer deaths caused by diarrhea (Esrey et al., 1991).

2 METHODOLOGY

భారతీయ ప్రామాణికాల సంస్థ (BIS)				
ఐ.సి.ఎస్.ఐ. IS 10500:2012				
మంచినీటికి ఉండవలసిన లక్షణాలు				
(భౌతిక మరియు రసాయనిక పరీక్షలు)				
క్ర.సం.	లక్షణము (Characteristic)	వినియోగము ఉండని (Not for use)	వినియోగము ఉండాలి (For use)	వినియోగము ఉండాలి అనియతము ఉండాలి (For use without restriction)
1.	రసం	వినియోగము ఉండాలి	వినియోగము ఉండాలి	వినియోగము ఉండాలి
2.	వాసన	-	-	-
3.	మృచ్ఛికత (Turbidity)	1	5	-
4.	పిపిటి (pH)	6.5-8.5	నరలంబు లేదు	షూట్ల పాల్కు నీటి ఉపధా వ్యవస్థ ప్రారంభం చూపును
5.	నీటిలో కలిగి ఉన్న మెటలు యంతుల సంఖ్య (mg/litre)	500	2000	క్రాంతకు అవశ్యకత మరియు వ్యక్తిగత వ్యవస్థ ప్రకారం
6.	కాల్షియం (Ca) (mg/l)	200	600	రూర అనియతముగా ఉండదు
7.	కీర కార్బోనేట్ (MgCO ₃) (mg/l)	300	600	మంచినీటి ఉపధా వ్యవస్థ మరియు వాటిలోని కఠిన లక్షణాల వాడుకలకు ప్రాధాన్యం
8.	కాల్షియం మెగ్నీషియం (Ca+Mg) (mg/l)	75	200	-
9.	నైట్రిక్ నైట్రజన్ (NO ₃ -N) (mg/l)	250	1000	పద వైద్యకరణము ద్వారా తగ్గింపు ఉండదు
10.	నీటిలో మిగిలి ఉన్న క్లోరిన్ (Cl) (mg/l)	0.2	1.0	పరమాణు క్లోరిన్ వ్యవస్థ ప్రకారం
11.	నీటిలో మిగిలి ఉన్న సల్ఫేట్ (SO ₄) (mg/l)	200	100	పానీయం చేయడానికి అనుకూలమైనదిగా ఉండాలి
12.	నైట్రిటైట్ నైట్రజన్ (NO ₂ -N) (mg/l)	45	వరలంబు లేదు	ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో ఉండాలి లేదా ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో ఉండాలి
13.	నైట్రియన్ నైట్రజన్ (NH ₄ -N) (mg/l)	1.0	1.5	ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో ఉండాలి లేదా ఉండాలి
14.	కఠినత (Hardness) (mg/l)	0.3	1.0	పానీయం చేయడానికి అనుకూలమైనదిగా ఉండాలి లేదా ఉండాలి
15.	మెగ్నీషియం (Mg) (mg/l)	30	100	పానీయం చేయడానికి అనుకూలమైనదిగా ఉండాలి లేదా ఉండాలి
16.	అల్యూమినియం (Al) (mg/l)	0.03	0.20	ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో ఉండాలి లేదా ఉండాలి

మంచినీటిలో సూక్ష్మజీవ సంబంధితాల ప్రామాణికాలు	
క్ర.సం.	లక్షణము (Characteristic)
(I)	క్లోరిడుం బాక్టీరియాలు (100 ml of water at 20°C) (mg/l)
(II)	మంచినీటి నమూనా వైఖరిలో వైద్యకరణ తర్వాత మిగిలి ఉండే బాక్టీరియాలు (100 ml of water at 20°C) (mg/l)
(III)	మంచినీటి ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో ఉపధా వ్యవస్థలలో మిగిలి ఉండే బాక్టీరియాలు (100 ml of water at 20°C) (mg/l)

Figure 8 Water quality tests



FREQUENCY OF WATER SAMPLING AND TESTING FOR SURFACE

WATER AS PER (O&M OF WATER SUPPLY SYSTEM CPHEEO



MANUAL IN ANNEXURE 9.6c (1) & (2)

a) <u>Raw water, Source and intake well:</u>		<u>MONITORING</u>	<u>SURVEILLANCE</u>
✓	Physical/ Chemical-	Daily	Quarterly
✓	Bacteriological	weekly	Fortnightly
✓	Biological-	Occasionally	Occasionally
✓	Heavy metals and pesticides-	Annually	Annually
✓	Problem parameters-		
	As, Cr, Fe, Mn & F—Annually		Annually
b) <u>Sedimentation Tank after clarifier:</u>			
✓	Turbidity-	Daily	—
✓	Bacteriological-	weekly	—
c) <u>Filter water:</u>			
✓	Turbidity-	Daily	Monthly
✓	Bacteriological	weekly	Monthly
d) <u>Clear water storage Reservoir:</u>			
✓	Residual Chlorine -	Daily	Fortnightly
✓	Physical/ Chemical	Daily	—
✓	Bacteriological-	weekly	Fortnightly
e) <u>Distribution System:</u>			
✓	Residual Chlorine-	Daily	Weekly
✓	Bacteriological	weekly	Monthly
✓	Physical/ Chemical	Monthly	Quarterly



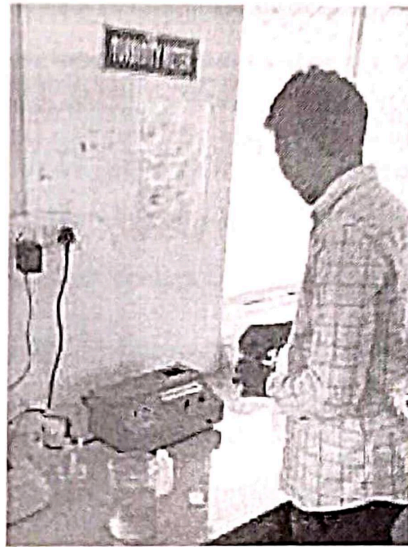
Figure 9 Water Quality Tests

Tests conducted for every few hours

Turbidity:

Turbidity is a measure of how cloudy water is. Sometimes also termed water clarity, turbidity is often used as a measure of the sanitary quality of water and often indicates that filters are not working properly.

Turbidity is a critical parameter for drinking water; it is one of the most important and regular tests done by drinking water companies. Turbidity monitoring is used to measure water processing efficiency in drinking water. Turbidity changes in drinking water can be caused by a multitude of things; it can indicate that the filters are not



working correctly, that there is a problem with the water, *Figure 10. Turbidity testing apparatus* ineffective disinfection or poor coagulation and flocculation.

The WHO set a limit that the turbidity of drinking water should not be more than 5 NTU, and should ideally be below 1 NTU. Most UK water companies aim to reach a target of less than 1 NTU at the drinking water treatment works. Turbidity testing is widely performed by water companies, read our case study on the Sutton and East Surrey water company to find out some of the turbidity challenges water companies face and how they overcame them using Palintest equipment.

Residual Chlorine Testing for chlorine

The most common test is the dpd (diethyl paraphenylenediamine) indicator test, using a comparator. This test is the quickest and simplest method for testing chlorine residual. With this test, a tablet reagent is added to a sample of water, colouring it red.

Chlorine is a naturally occurring element found in a gaseous form at room temperature. The highly reactive nature of chlorine means it is usually bound with other

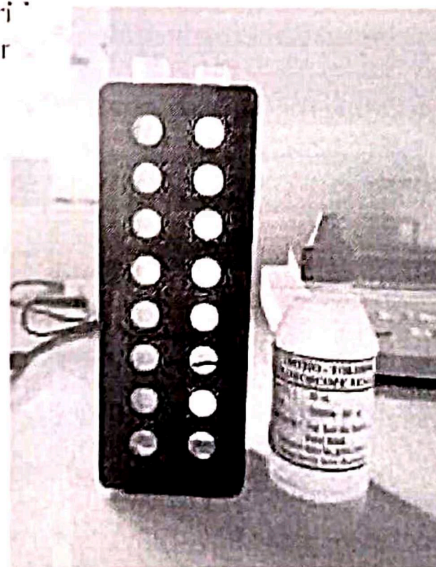


Figure 11. Ortho-Tolidine Chloroscoper agent

elements, such as sodium chloride (salt). A strong oxidizing agent, chlorine deactivates microorganisms by breaking through the cell membrane

Chlorine was first added to drinking water systems in the 19th century to combat diseases such as cholera. Since then, chlorine has been widely adopted as a disinfectant across multiple applications, including in swimming pools and for washing food produce. As with all disinfectants, monitoring of residuals and dosing is important to ensure that levels are not too high or low. Chlorine levels are routinely monitored to ensure that water is free of harmful bacteria. However, because it is very sensitive to pH and temperature, both those parameters must be tested and carefully controlled to achieve optimum performance.

Most drinking water is treated with chlorine to prevent harmful bacteria causing illness in humans and animals. Whether added as free chlorine or a combined chlorine depends very much on how quickly the water is to be consumed and the potential for disinfection byproduct formation.

PH

PH is a measure of how acidic/basic water is. The range goes from 0 to 14, with 7 being neutral. pHs of less than 7 indicate acidity, whereas a pH of greater than 7 indicates a base. The pH of water is a very important measurement concerning water quality.

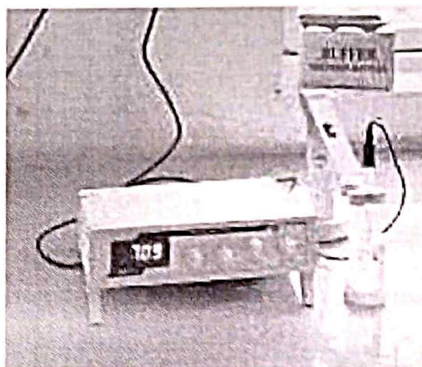


Figure 12. pH testing apparatus

One of the most important indicators for water quality is its pH level. The pH scale runs from 0 to 14 and measures the acid or base quality of water. A pH of 7 is neutral, while a reading below 7 is acidic, and one above 7 is alkaline or basic. Water quality depends on proper pH levels. In acidic water, for example, toxic heavy metals dissolve easily and are more harmful to living things. The pH level also affects the availability of essential plant nutrients, with many nutrients being less available at a pH above 7.

PH of Drinking Water

There is no legally enforceable standard for drinking water pH levels because pH is considered aesthetic water quality. However, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) recommends a pH between 6.5 and 8.5 for drinking water. Since metals dissolve readily in acidic water, dissolved metals may be present in drinking water with a low pH level. Metals such as iron, manganese, copper, and lead can leach into drinking water from pipes or the local aquifer.

In acidic water, iron causes a metallic taste as well as reddish stains on clothing and plumbing, while other metals such as lead are toxic. Alkaline or "hard" water contains excess calcium and other minerals that cause the familiar scale deposits on cookware and a bitter taste in coffee.

Total Dissolved Solids

TDS is a measure of the dissolved combined content of all inorganic and organic substances present in a liquid in molecular, ionized, or micro-granular (colloidal soil) suspended form. TDS concentrations are often reported in parts per million (ppm). Water TDS concentrations can be determined using a digital meter.

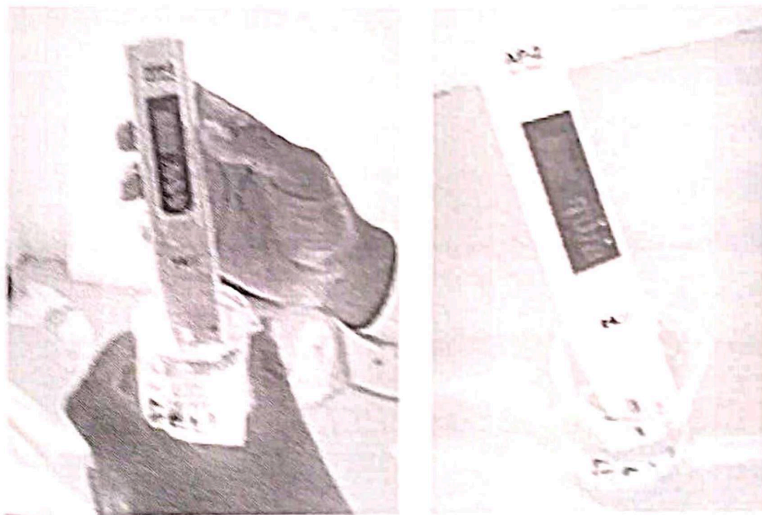


Figure 3. TDS testing apparatus

Bottled mineral water usually contains higher TDS levels than tap water. Generally, the operational definition is that the solids must be small enough to survive filtration through a filter with 2-micrometer (nominal size, or smaller) pores. Total dissolved solids are normally discussed only for freshwater systems, as salinity includes some of the ions constituting the definition of TDS. The principal application of TDS is in the study of water quality for streams, rivers, and lakes. Although TDS is not generally considered a primary pollutant (e.g. it is not deemed to be associated with health effects), it is used as an indication of aesthetic characteristics of drinking water and as an aggregate indicator of the presence of a broad array of chemical contaminants.

Primary sources for TDS in receiving waters are agricultural runoff and residential (urban) runoff, clay-rich mountain waters, leaching of soil contamination, and point source water pollution discharge from industrial or sewage treatment plants. The most common chemical constituents are calcium, phosphates, nitrates, sodium, potassium, and chloride, which are found in nutrient runoff, general stormwater runoff and runoff from snow climates where road

de-

icingsaltsareapplied.Thechemicalsmaybecations,anions,molecules,oragglomerationsontheorde
rofonethousandorfewer molecules,solongasasolublemicro-granuleisformed.More exotic and
harmful elements of TDS are pesticides arising from surface runoff. Certain naturally
occurring total dissolved solids arise from the weathering and dissolution of
rocksandsoils.TheUnitedStateshasestablishedasecondarywaterqualitystandardof500
mg/Ltoprovide for palatability of drinking water. Total dissolved solids are differentiated
from totalsuspended solids (TSS), in that the latter cannot pass through a sieve of 2
micrometres and yetare indefinitely suspended in solution. The term settleable solids refers to
material of any sizethat will not remain suspended or dissolved in a holding tank not subject
to motion, andexcludes both TDS and TSS.[2] Settleable solids may include larger particulate
matter orinsoluble molecules. Total dissolved solids include both volatileandnon-volatile
solids.Volatile solids are ones that can easily go from a solid to a liquid state. Non-volatile
solidsmust be heated to a high temperature, typically 550 °C, in order to achieve this state
change.Examples ofnon-volatilesubstancesincludesaltsandsugars.

Conductivity

Conductivity is measured with a probe and
ameter.Voltageisappliedbetweentwoelectrode
s in a probe immersed in the
samplewater.The dropinvoltagecausedbytheres
istance of the water is used to calculate
theconductivitypercentimetre.

Conductivityisameasureof theability
ofwatertopassanelectricalcurrent.Conductivity
inwaterisaffectedbythe

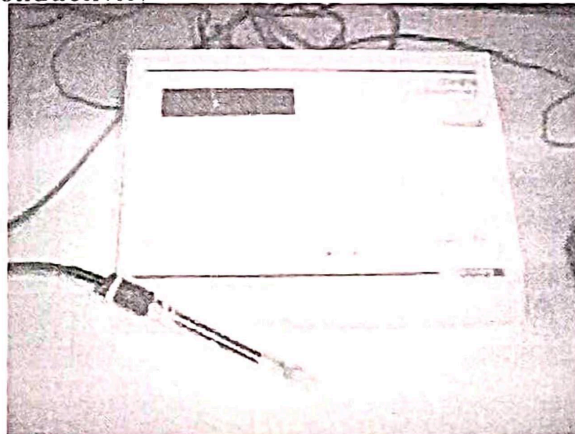


Figure 14. Electrical conductivity meter

presence of inorganic dissolved solids such as chloride, nitrate, sulfate, and phosphate anions (ions that carry a negative charge) or sodium, magnesium, calcium, iron, and aluminum cations (ions that carry a positive charge). Organic compounds like oil, phenol, alcohol, and sugar do not conduct electrical current very well and therefore have a low conductivity when in water. Conductivity is also affected by temperature: the warmer the water, the higher the conductivity.

For this reason, conductivity is reported as conductivity at 25 degrees Celsius (25C).

Conductivity in streams and rivers is affected primarily by the geology of the area through which the water flows.

into ionic components) when washed into the water. On the other hand, streams that run through areas with clay soils tend to have higher conductivity because of the presence of materials that ionize when washed into the water. Ground water inflows can have the same effects depending on the bedrock they flow through.

Discharges to streams can change the conductivity depending on their makeup. A failing sewage system would raise the conductivity because of the presence of chloride, phosphate, and nitrate; an oil spill would lower the conductivity.

The basic unit of measurement of conductivity is the mho or siemens. Conductivity is measured in micromhos per centimetre ($\mu\text{mhos/cm}$) or micro siemens per centimetre ($\mu\text{s/cm}$). Distilled water has a conductivity in the range of 0.5 to 3 $\mu\text{mhos/cm}$. The conductivity of rivers in the United States generally ranges from 50 to 1500 $\mu\text{mhos/cm}$. Studies of inland fresh waters indicate that streams supporting good mixed fisheries have a range between 150 and 500 $\mu\text{mhos/cm}$. Conductivity outside this range could indicate that the water is not suitable for certain species of fish or macroinvertebrates. Industrial waters can range as high as 10,000 $\mu\text{mhos/cm}$.

Hardness

Originally, the hardness of water was understood to be a measure of the capacity of water for precipitating soap. Soap is precipitated chiefly by the calcium and magnesium ions commonly present in water, but may also be precipitated by ions of other polyvalent metals, such as aluminium, iron, manganese, strontium and zinc, and by hydrogen ions. Because, all but the first two are usually present in insignificant concentrations in natural waters, hardness is defined as a characteristic of water, which represents the total concentration of just the calcium and the magnesium ions expressed as calcium carbonate. However, if present in significant amounts, other hardness producing metal ions should be included.

When the hardness is numerically greater than the sum of the carbonate alkalinity and the bicarbonate alkalinity, the amount of hardness, which is equivalent to the total alkalinity, is called carbonate hardness; the amount of hardness in excess of this is called non-carbonate hardness. When the hardness is numerically equal to or less than the sum of carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity all of the hardness is carbonate hardness and there is no non-carbonate hardness. The hardness may range from zero to hundreds of milligrams per litre in terms of calcium carbonate, depending on the source and treatment to which the water has been subjected.

Ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid and its sodium salts acetic acid and its sodium salts (EDTA) form a chelated soluble complex when added to a solution of certain metal cations. If a small amount of a dye such as Eriochrome black T is added to an aqueous solution containing calcium and magnesium ions at a pH of 10 ± 0.1 , the solution will become wine red. When EDTA is then added as a titrant, the calcium and magnesium will be complexed. After sufficient EDTA has been added to complex all the magnesium and calcium, the solution will turn from wine red to blue. This is the end point of the titration.

Jar test

Jar testing is a pilot-scale test of the treatment chemicals used in a particular water plant. It simulates the coagulation/flocculation process in a water treatment plant and helps operators determine if they are using the right amount of treatment chemicals, and, thus, improves the plant's performance.

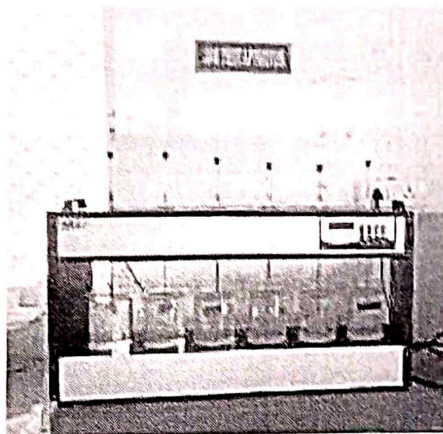


Figure 15. Jar test apparatus

Daily on ctitrations

Alkalinity Alkalinity test of water

Alkaline ionised water commonly known as Alkaline water has high pH value. Notably, pH is a measure of the acid-base balance of water. Significantly, Alkalinity is one of the most important things measured in the chemistry of water.

Usually, the pH of natural water ranges between 6.5 and 8.5, and it is controlled by the carbon dioxide-bicarbonate-carbonate equilibrium system. Alkalinity is present in water as dissolved minerals like calcium and magnesium.

The alkali metals are found in earth's crust and it is everywhere in nature. Alkalinity is the ability of a liquid or substance to resist a change in pH, or the capacity of water to buffer against an acid.

Alkalinity indicates how much acid a solution can absorb without changing the pH. It is the buffering capacity of a solution (water). Therefore, solutions with low alkalinity have a lower buffering capacity, and change pH rather quickly when something acidic is added.

On the contrary, high alkalinity of water samples have a higher buffering capacity and are less affected when something acidic is added. It becomes necessary to add a lot more acid in order to obtain the same pH change as in a low alkalinity of water sample.

Alkalinity of water differs according to the geographical location. The soil and mineral of the particular geographical location influences the amount of alkalinity in natural water sources. Primarily, the areas where limestone are present predominantly have higher alkalinity in water.

Alkalinity Measurement Alkalinity is essential in several industries for water treatment. It is highly essential to ensure a proper alkalinity test from a trusted water testing laboratory.

The accurate monitoring of alkalinity will save materials, money and time of users.

When measuring alkalinity of water, the results are displayed as ppm of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3). Hydroxide (OH^-) ions, bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ions, and carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) ions all contribute to water alkalinity.

Whether it is drinking water or wastewater treatment processes alkalinity is a parameter that is closely monitored. Optimal alkalinity can streamline treatment, and cut down on the time

additional materials needed, stalled treatment, end product imperfections, and environmental implications.

How to determine alkalinity in water

1. Take a 20 ml sample solution in a conical flask and add 2-3 drops of phenolphthalein indicator.
2. Titrate this against HCl solution until the solution becomes colourless, note the readings.
3. Add 2-3 drops of methyl orange indicator and titrate it again.
4. Stop when you see red colour and note down the reading.

Total alkalinity measures the level of alkaline in water, it is the measurement of the concentration of all alkaline substances that dissolve in water.

Total alkalinity is measured by measuring the amount of acid (e.g., sulfuric acid) needed to bring the sample to a pH of 4.2. At this pH all the alkaline compounds in the sample are "used up." The result is reported as milligrams per liter of calcium carbonate (mg/L CaCO₃).

It can be appositely tested in a laboratory. For instance, in swimming pools water bicarbonate alkalinity should be in between 80 ppm and 120 ppm. If the total alkalinity is within this range then it will prevent rapid pH changes and will stabilize the pH level in the water.

If the total alkalinity is lower than required level the pool water could turn green and it will cause irritation in eyes of people and rigid stains on walls of the pool.

Types of Alkalinity

Two types of Alkalinity present in water,

1. P-

Alkalinity also called Phenolphthalein Alkalinity because Phenolphthalein indicator used for analysis is

2. M-

Alkalinity also called Methyl orange Alkalinity because Methyl orange indicator used for analysis

These are the results of the hourly and daily test performed in the laboratory

Time	Sample	Temp	Humidity	Pressure	Wind	Direction	Cloud	Visibility	Remarks
08:00	Temp	28.5	75	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	65	75						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
09:00	Temp	29.0	76	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	66	76						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
10:00	Temp	29.5	77	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	67	77						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
11:00	Temp	30.0	78	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	68	78						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
12:00	Temp	30.5	79	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	69	79						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							

Time	Sample	Temp	Humidity	Pressure	Wind	Direction	Cloud	Visibility	Remarks
13:00	Temp	31.0	80	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	70	80						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
14:00	Temp	31.5	81	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	71	81						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
15:00	Temp	32.0	82	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	72	82						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
16:00	Temp	32.5	83	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	73	83						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							
17:00	Temp	33.0	84	1010	3.5	SE	10	10	
	Humidity	74	84						
	Pressure	1010							
	Wind	3.5							
	Direction	SE							

Handwritten notes and tables on the top page of the ledger. The tables contain numerical data and some descriptive text, though the handwriting is somewhat faint and difficult to read. There are several columns and rows of data.

Handwritten tables on the bottom page of the ledger. These tables appear to be organized into sections, possibly representing different categories or time periods. The data includes numbers and some text entries.

Account	Debit	Credit	Balance	Debit	Credit	Balance
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2023

Account	Debit	Credit	Balance	Debit	Credit	Balance
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Date: 10/10/1955				No. 1				
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0100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0500	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0600	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0700	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0800	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0900	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1000	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1500	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1600	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1700	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1800	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1900	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2000	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		

Date: 10/11/1955				No. 2				
Time	Temp	Wind	Pressure	Humidity	Clouds	Visibility	Remarks	
0000	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0500	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0600	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0700	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0800	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
0900	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1000	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1500	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1600	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1700	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1800	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
1900	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2000	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2100	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2200	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2300	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		
2400	54	10	30.05	75	100	10		

Daily test to check the bacterial presence H₂S Test

The H₂S test, also known as the hydrogen sulphide test, is a simple and widely used method to detect the presence of sulphides, such as hydrogen sulphide (H₂S), in water. Here is a detailed procedure for performing the H₂S test:

If the water sample turns yellow, brown, or black, it indicates the presence of hydrogen sulphide. The intensity of the colour change correlates with the concentration of H₂S in the water sample. The colour chart provided with the test kit can be used to estimate the concentration of H₂S in the water sample.

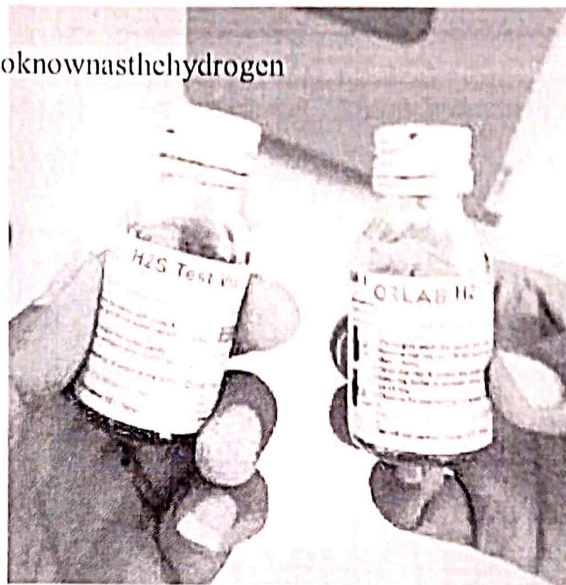


Figure 16: H₂S water testing method for bacterial identification

MacConkey broth

The MacConkey broth test is a commonly used method to detect the presence of coliform bacteria and *E. coli* in water samples. It involves inoculating a sample of the water being tested into MacConkey broth, which contains lactose and bile salts, and incubating it for 24-48 hours at 35-37°C.

If coliform bacteria are present in the water sample, they will ferment the lactose in the broth and produce acid, causing the broth to turn yellow. *E. coli* will also ferment lactose and produce acid, but it will also produce gas, which can be detected by observing gas bubbles or by using a Durham tube.



Figure 17: MacConkey broth double standard tubes

If the broth remains pink or purple after incubation, it indicates the absence of coliform bacteria and *E. coli*.

Overall, the MacConkey broth test is a useful tool for monitoring water quality and identifying potential sources of contamination. It is often used in conjunction with other tests and methods to provide a comprehensive analysis of water samples.

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196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256	257	258	259	260	261	262	263	264	265	266	267	268	269	270	271	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281	282	283	284	285	286	287	288	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296	297	298	299	300																																																																																															
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Chemical used in water treatment process

1. Aluminium sulphate, also known as alum, is commonly added to the water treatment process as a coagulant. Coagulation is the process of bringing together small particles in water to form larger, more easily removed particles.

When aluminium sulphate is added to water, it reacts with the water to form aluminium hydroxide, which then reacts with the small particles in the water to form larger, heavier particles called flocs. These flocs are then able to settle more easily to the bottom of the water treatment tank or float to the surface, making it easier to remove them from the water.

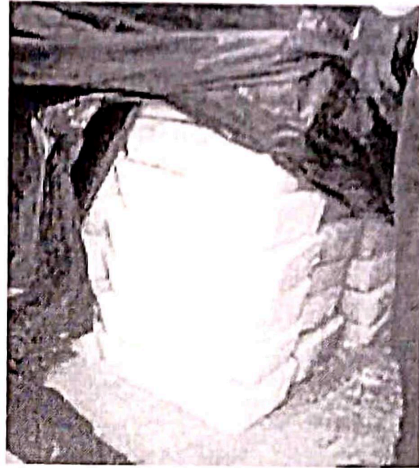


Figure 18. Aluminium sulphate bricks

Alum is particularly effective at removing suspended solids and turbidity (cloudiness) from water. It can also help to remove other impurities such as bacteria, viruses, and organic matter. Additionally, alum can help to control the pH of the water and improve the effectiveness of disinfectants used in the water treatment process.

Overall, the addition of aluminium sulphate is an important step in the water treatment process as it helps to improve the quality and safety of the water by removing impurities and contaminants.

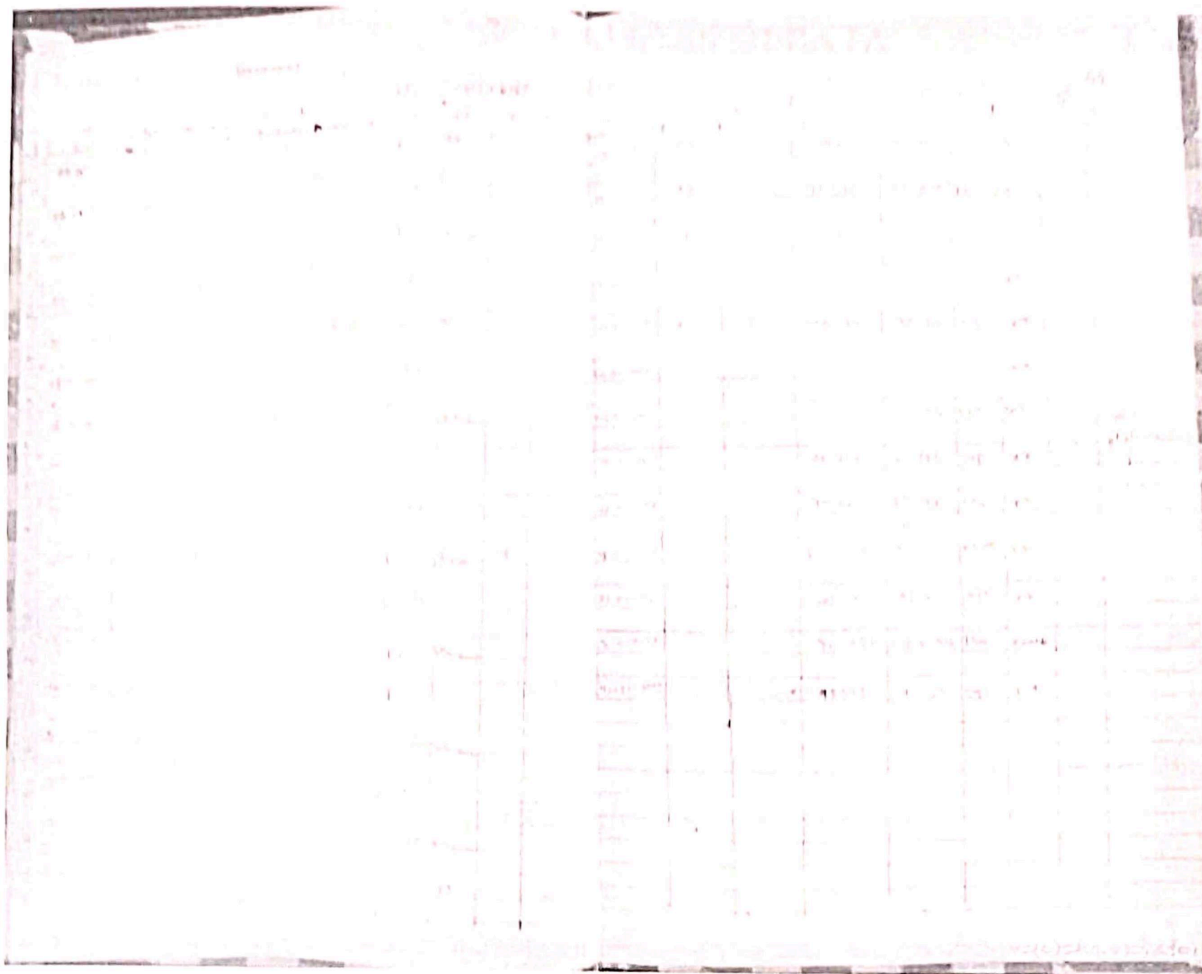
2. Chlorine: To prevent contamination with germs, water companies add a disinfectant—usually either chlorine or chloramine—that kills disease-causing germs such as Salmonella, Campylobacter, and norovirus.

It is added to the water in the form of gas.

Chlorine is added to water in two steps that is pre-chlorine and post-chlorine,

The Pre-chlorine added to r

aw water is 4ppm and the post-chlorine added to clear water is 2ppm, at the time of water supply the chlorine will get evaporated and the percentage of chlorine present in water is 0.2 to 0.5ppm which is edible for drinking



3 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Water pollution can occur due to the discharge of untreated or partially treated wastewater, agricultural runoff, industrial waste, or other human activities. Bacterial pollutants that are commonly found in water bodies include:

1. *Escherichia coli* (E. coli): E. coli is a common bacterium found in the intestines of humans and animals. The presence of E. coli in water indicates fecal contamination, which can lead to the spread of waterborne diseases.
2. *Salmonella*: Salmonella is a group of bacteria that can cause illnesses such as typhoid fever, food poisoning, and gastroenteritis. It is commonly found in contaminated water sources.
3. *Vibrio cholerae*: *Vibrio cholerae* is a bacterium that causes cholera, a serious diarrheal disease that can lead to dehydration and death if left untreated. It is typically found in areas with poor sanitation and hygiene.
4. *Shigella*: *Shigella* is a group of bacteria that can cause diarrheal diseases, including dysentery. It is typically transmitted through faecal-oral contamination.
5. *Legionella*: *Legionella* is a bacterium that causes Legionnaires' disease, a type of pneumonia. It is commonly found in stagnant water sources such as cooling towers and hot water systems.

To prevent water pollution and the spread of bacterial pollutants, it is important to properly treat and dispose of wastewater, minimize agricultural and industrial runoff, and practice good hygiene and sanitation measures.

4 FINDINGS

The water should have certain qualities which make it edible for drinking without causing any harm/health related issues to its consumers they are:

TURBIDITY: The normal range of turbidity of water should be in between 1-5 NTU.

RESIDUAL CHLORIDE: The normal range of the chlorine present in water should be in between 0.2 to 0.5.

PH: The normal PH range of the water should be in between 6.5 to 8.5.

TDS: The normal TDS (TOTAL DISSOLVED SOLUTES) range of water should be in between 210 to 800 mg/ltr.

ALKINITY: The alkalinity of water should be in between 300 to 400

mg/ltr. HARDNESS: The hardness of water should be in between 300 to 600

mg/ltr. CONDUCTIVITY: The conductivity of water should be in between 300 to 600

mg/ltr. These are the qualities of water which make them edible for drinking.

5 DISCUSSION

Maintenance and Treatment of water in the water treatment plant is a difficult task. We should take good care and follow protocols during its treatment in the plant. When the water is brought from the river to the plant, it is very much polluted with physical waste like soil, dust and etc. These river water enters the plant through the Aerator from there the raw water sample is collected and tested for its TURBIDITY, RESIDUAL CHLORINE, PH, TDS, CONDUCTIVITY, HARDNESS, ALKINITY and also tests to identify the bacterial presence like H₂S TEST and MACCONKEY BROTH TEST.

By these tests they analyse the water completely and take required measures to make the water safe for drinking. After the analysis of water they use required amount of chemicals like ALUMINIUM SULPHATE which is used to make the water clear from physical pollutants/impurities and CHLORINE is used for the disinfection of water and make them free from coliform bacterial which are harmful if consumed.

6 CONCLUSION

Bacterial analysis of water is an essential aspect of public health, as contaminated water can cause waterborne diseases like cholera, typhoid fever, and diarrhea. In India, several cities have been grappling with water contamination issues, including Hyderabad, Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai.

Hyderabad: According to a study conducted by the National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (NEERI), the water quality in Hyderabad is generally good, with few instances of contamination. However, the city's growing population and industrialization have put pressure on the water supply and increased the risk of contamination.

Delhi: Delhi's water supply is a mix of surface and groundwater sources. However, the city's groundwater is heavily contaminated due to industrial and domestic wastewater, making it unsuitable for drinking without treatment. According to a study by the Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB), nearly 80% of Delhi's groundwater is contaminated with coliform bacteria, which indicates fecal contamination.

Mumbai: Mumbai's water supply comes from several sources, including the Tansa, Vaitarna, and Modak Sagar reservoirs. However, the city's water supply is also at risk of contamination due to inadequate sewage treatment, industrial pollution, and encroachment on water bodies. Kolkata: Kolkata's water supply comes primarily from the Hooghly River, which is heavily polluted with industrial waste and sewage. The city's water treatment facilities are also outdated, leading to concerns about the safety of the water supply.

Chennai: Chennai has been facing severe water scarcity issues in recent years due to inadequate rainfall and mismanagement of water resources. The city's groundwater is also contaminated with high levels of fluoride and arsenic, making it unsuitable for consumption without treatment.

In terms of the treatment of water, there are significant differences between these cities. For example, Hyderabad has invested in advanced water treatment technologies like reverse osmosis and ultrafiltration to ensure water quality. Delhi has recently implemented a comprehensive plan to improve the city's water supply, including the installation of new treatment plants and the revival of water bodies. Mumbai has also initiated several measures to improve water quality, including the construction of new sewage treatment plants and the implementation of stricter industrial pollution control regulations. Kolkata has been upgrading its water treatment facilities to meet the growing demand for clean water. Chennai, on the other hand, has been relying on desalination plants to provide drinking water due to the scarcity of fresh water resources.

In conclusion, bacterial analysis of water is crucial to ensure public health in Indian cities like Hyderabad, Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai. Although these cities have their unique water quality challenges, investment in advanced water treatment technologies and proper management of water resources can help improve water quality and reduce the risk of waterborne diseases.

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